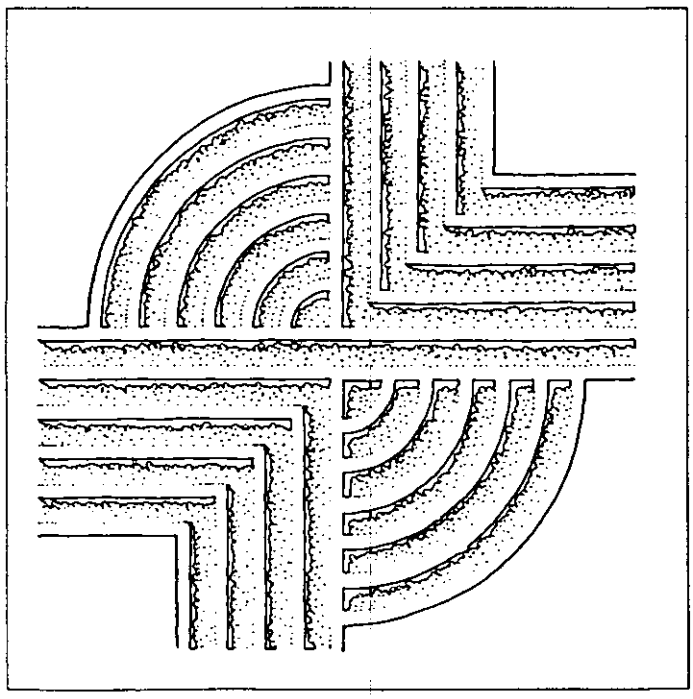
ARCHAEOLOGICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF THE PROPOSED GRAY'S HILL SCHOOL SITE, BEAUFORT COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 211

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ABSTRACT

This report provides information on an archaeological reconnaissance survey the proposed Gray's Hill or Whale Branch school site at the intersection of US 21 and Stuarts Point Road (S-70). The study was conducted at the request of the Beaufort County School District in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance requiring an assessment of development tracts. The work was coordinated through Mr. Ed Watson with Construction Control Corporation of Columbia, South Carolina.

The proposed school site includes about 56 acres situated on a low bluff overlooking the marshes of Whale Branch to the north. The area has been previously cultivated and also includes a pecan orchard. A significant portion of the acreage has been taken out of cultivation and planted in pines. There is one fallow field on the tract, although it appears that most of the land is used for hunting.

The only historical background collected at this reconnaissance stage is that provided by Chicora's previous cartographic survey of Beaufort County. This document identify several maps reporting the location of a major antebellum plantation settlement on the survey tract. In fact, the topographic land form is known as Stuart's Point, after one of the primary family's owning the tract.

Given the low surface visibility of the tract, a simple pedestrian survey was not possible. As a result 121 shovel tests were excavated using transects spaced primarily 200 feet apart, with screened shovel tests every 100 feet along these transects. Where open ground was present, surface data was also collected. Since the entire tract was evaluated to have a high archaeological potential, no areas were excluded from this initial assessment.

As a result of the study one archaeological site was identified. This site, recorded with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as 38BU1689, covers the central portion of the tract, incorporating about 40 of the 56 acres.

Recovered materials include a range of prehistoric pottery, flakes, and at least one projectile point. These materials span the Middle to Late Woodland (ca. 500 B.C. through ca. A.D. 1200). These materials are likely associated with a series of small camps or hamlets established on the sandy soils just inland from the marshes of Whales Branch. Somewhat surprising are the absence of shell middens, suggesting that the prehistoric materials may be somewhat different from those typically recovered closer to Beaufort's Sea Islands.

Historic materials spanning the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were also recovered, with both high and low status ceramics identified in the collection. This suggests that the site may include both the main plantation settlement and also the slave settlement. The preliminary testing did suggest several concentrations of material, possibly associated with structural locations.

This reconnaissance study revealed a potentially very significant site on the proposed school tract. We recommend detailed archival examination, coupled with an intensive survey and testing of site components. This additional work will provide sufficient information to allow the site's eligibility for inclusion on the National Register to be assessed, as well as allow recommendations for either avoidance or data recovery.

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INTRODUCTION

Background and the Site Area

The Gray's Hill or Whale Branch School tract is situated about 15 miles north of Beaufort east of US 21 and north of Stuarts Point Road (S-70) (Figure 1). It is bordered by Whale Branch to the north, private land holdings consisting of a cultivated field to the east, Stuarts Point Road to the south, and US 21 to the west. The tract is reported to encompass 56 acres of high ground (Figure 2).

Although originally the entire tract was likely dominated by mixed hardwoods, particularly live oak and palmetto, today it includes a mixture of different ecological settings. Dominating the casual observer's perception of the property is a pecan grove bordering Stuarts Point Road (Figure 3) and a fallow field further northward (Figure 4). Also present, however, are large areas of planted pines coupled with small areas of mixed pines and hardwoods. There is also still a narrow area along the marsh edge where the original maritime forest is still present. The tract is further altered by a variety of agricultural drainage ditches. Some of these appear to be fairly recent (i.e., twentieth century), while many more appear to date from the nineteenth century, based on the presence of large diameter trees growing on the associated dikes. In particular, there is a dike running along the marsh front of the property which was probably intended to prevent flooding during periods of high tide.

The soils in the survey tract include both Coosaw loamy fine sands and also Chisolm loamy fine sands. The Chisolm soils are well drained and exhibit an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) sand about 0.8 to 0.9 foot in depth overlying a B horizon of yellowish red (5YR5/8) sandy clay loam (Stuck 1980:65). They are found in the center of the study tract, associated with the densest concentrations of prehistoric and historic remains (discussed below). The Coosaw soils are somewhat poorly drained and typically have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) sand about 0.7 foot in depth which grades into a brownish yellow (10YR6/6) sand (Stuck 1980:65). It is the areas of Coosaw soil which are dominated by the tract's ditch network. In spite of being less well drained, historic and prehistoric remains were found on these soils.

The topography of the tract appears level, although it does gradually slope to the north, toward Whale Branch. Elevations range from about 12 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in the vicinity of Stuarts Point Road to about 8 feet AMSL at the marsh edge.

Chicora Foundation was contacted by Mr. Ed Watson with Construction Control Corporation on January 3, 1997. Representing the Beaufort School District, he requested a proposal for a reconnaissance level archaeological survey. This study was requested in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance. A letter from Mr. Watson from Beaufort County Planning Director Summer L. Rutherford specified that after the completion of a reconnaissance study, "the Planning Director in consultation with professional compliance archaeologists, will make a determination as to whether or not an Intensive Level Survey should be completed or if some other course of action should be taken" (letter from Summer L. Rutherford to Ed Watson, dated November 27, 1996).

Chicora responded to Mr. Watson's RFP with a proposal on January 7. This was accepted by the Beaufort School District on February 3, 1997.

The reconnaissance level investigation was conducted on February 11, 1997. Approximately 25.5 person hours were spent on-site by the Principal Investigator, Dr. Michael Trinkley, and the field crew, Mr. John Hamer and Mr. Ian Hamer.

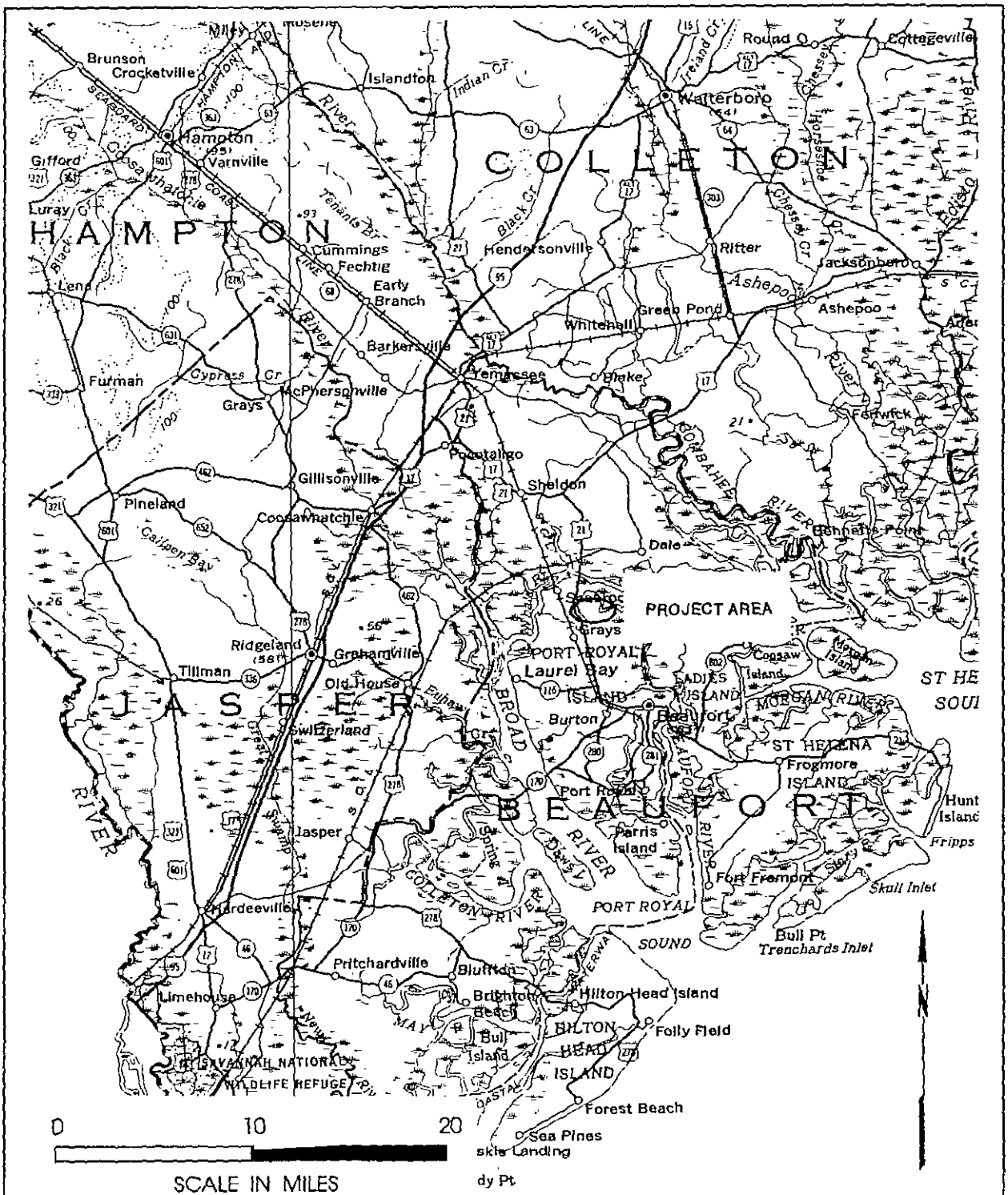

Figure 1. Location of the survey tract in the Beaufort area (USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

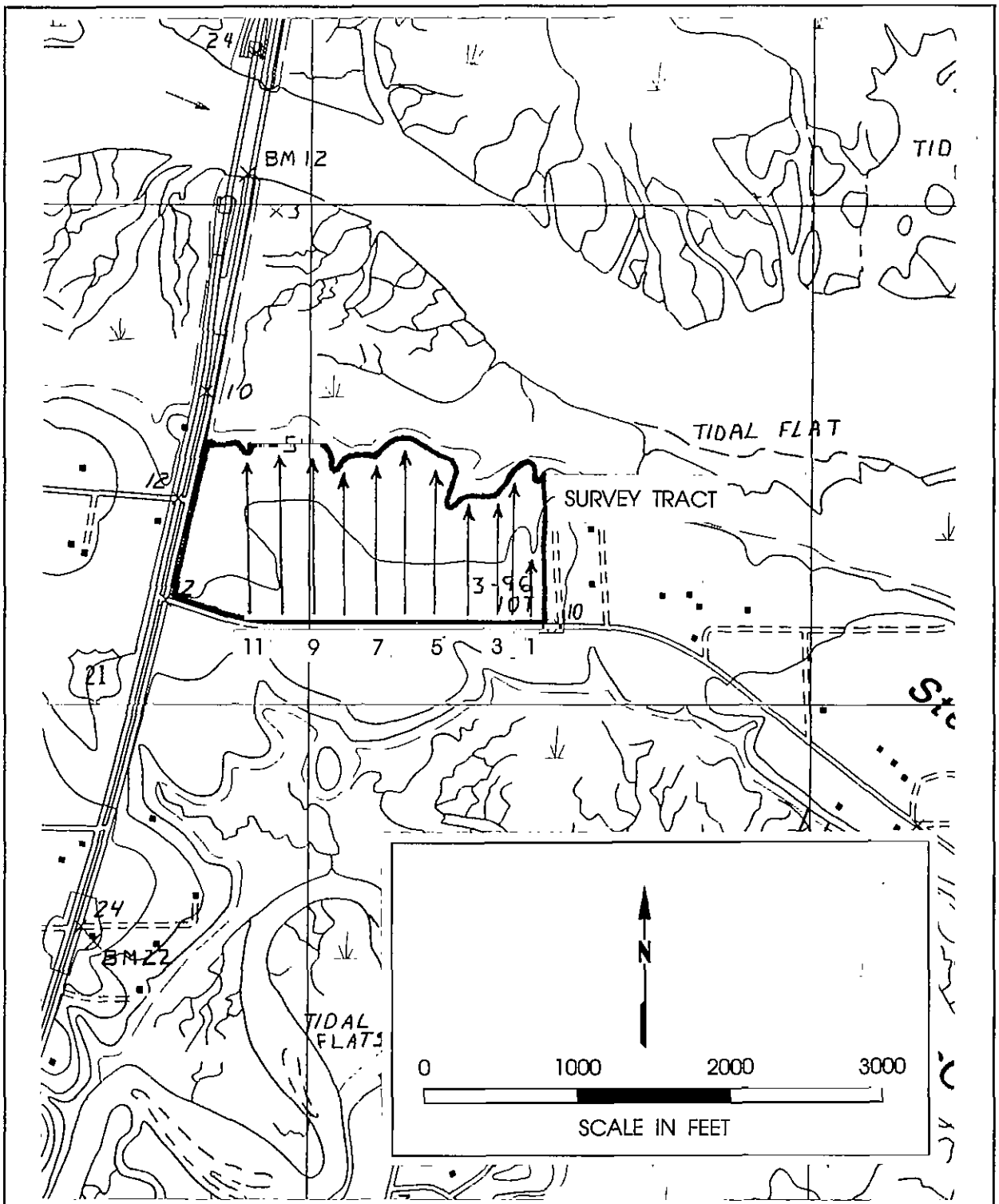

Figure 2. A portion of the USGS Dale topographic map showing the survey tract and shovel test transects.

Figure 3. View of the pecan grove of the Gray's Hill school tract, looking toward the northwest.

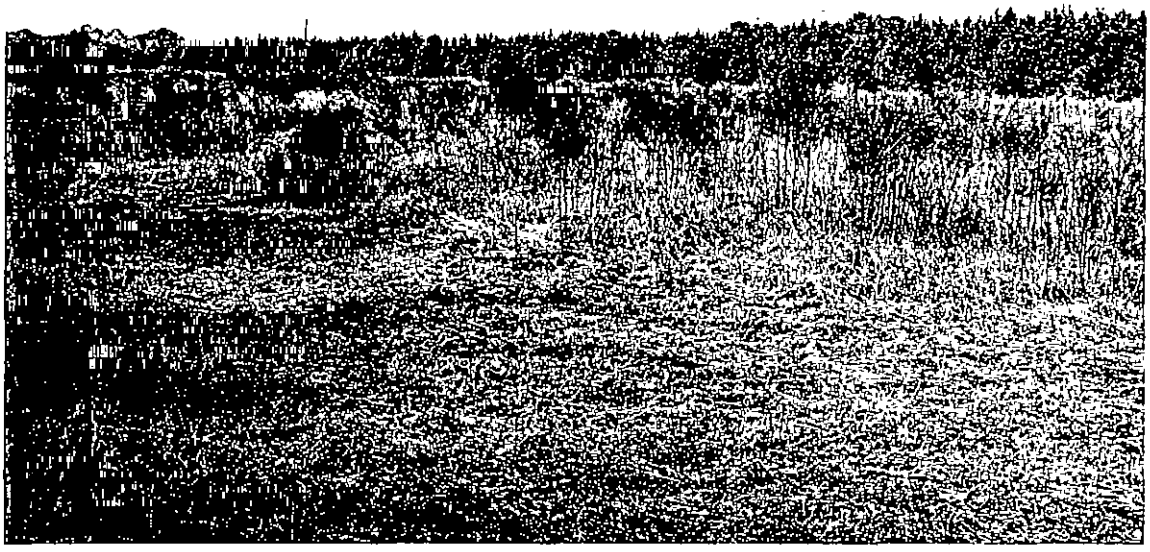

Figure 4. Fallow field in the center of the school tract, view to the northwest.

Previous Investigations

Although we were requested only to undertaken an archaeological reconnaissance of the school tract, we did contact the South Carolina Department of Archives and History and request a check of their master topographic maps to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, we requested a check to determine the results of any structures surveys which may have been completed in the study area. Dr. Tracy Power of that agency reported that there were no recorded sites for the project area (Dr. Tracy Power, personal communication 1997). In addition, Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs of the Foundation staff examined the State Site Files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology to confirm that no archaeological sites had been previously identified on the tract.

In addition, we examined the previously conducted cartographic survey of Beaufort County (Hacker and Trinkley 1992), discovering that the school tract was situated on the same land as what appears to be a major plantation settlement. In the eighteenth century the settlement was occupied by Rupert. By the middle of the nineteenth century the plantation had been acquired by Stuart (Hacker and Trinkley 1992:25).

An examination of these, plus several additional, maps shows the settlement, but little additional information. Figure 5 is the ca. 1780 map of the Beaufort area from the Dartmouth College Library's Scavenius Collection. It shows the plantation was occupied by Rupert. Figure 6 reveals that by the time of Mills' Atlas in 1826, the plantation was owned by J.G. Barnwell. Later maps based on Mills, including the 1873 Law and Kirk map of Beaufort (Figure 7) and Stroeber's 1873 Geological and Agricultural map of the county, show the plantation as belonging to Stuart. Based on previous experience with Beaufort County plantations, it is likely that the settlement was owned by Stuart at least by the time of the Civil War and the name was attached to the property (and, in fact, this entire point) through the postbellum.

The most detailed map is the U.S. Coast Survey Chart, "Whale Branch Passage Between Coosaw and Broad Rivers, South Carolina," published in 1876 (Figure 8). This map shows what is today Stuart Point Road running east off of the Port Royal Ferry Road (today US 21) and then turning to the northeast. A structure is shown set back slightly from the marsh edge. This structure would be situated about in the center of the survey tract. This location is supported by the Sketch of Sea Coast of South Carolina and Georgia, prepared in 1863. The map fails to show any other structures, especially a slave settlement. This suggests that the plantation was largely in ruins by the end of the war.

Although this brief overview of the available historic documents fails to reveal precise building locations, it does provide a preliminary (and provisional) chain of title, combined with clear documentation of the area's significance. It also suggests that a more detailed archival search, emphasizing primary documents would be beneficial.

Relatively few studies have been conducted in this porion of Beaufort County. Beaufort County Planning Director Summer L. Rutherford, in her letter to Mr. Watson, did note that several prehistoric and early historic sites have been found in the area (letter from Summer L. Rutherford to Ed Watson, dated November 27, 1996). Sites 38BU143 and 38BU144 were both recorded by the author of this report in 1978. These sites are situated west of US 21 and, while in the vicinity, are not on the survey tract.

Prehistoric Synthesis

There have been a number of studies prepared for the Beaufort area, and Derting et al. (1991:47-77) list 225 in their bibliography of South Carolina archaeology. There are a variety of excellent archaeological studies for the general project area which should be consulted (see especially Trinkley and Adams 1994 for an overview of previous research and Anderson et al. (1996) for a synthesis of current thought regarding the Woodland Period along the Carolina coast.

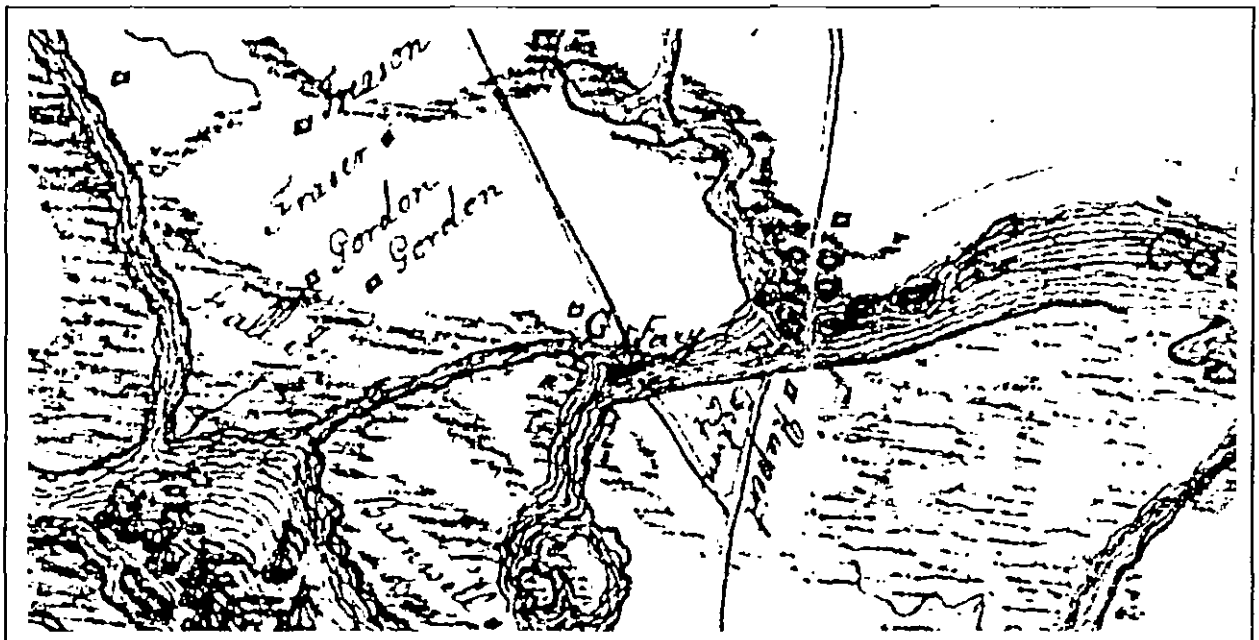

Figure 5. Portion of the ca. 1780 Beaufort area map in the Dartmouth College Library's Scavenius Collection, showing the Rupert settlement.

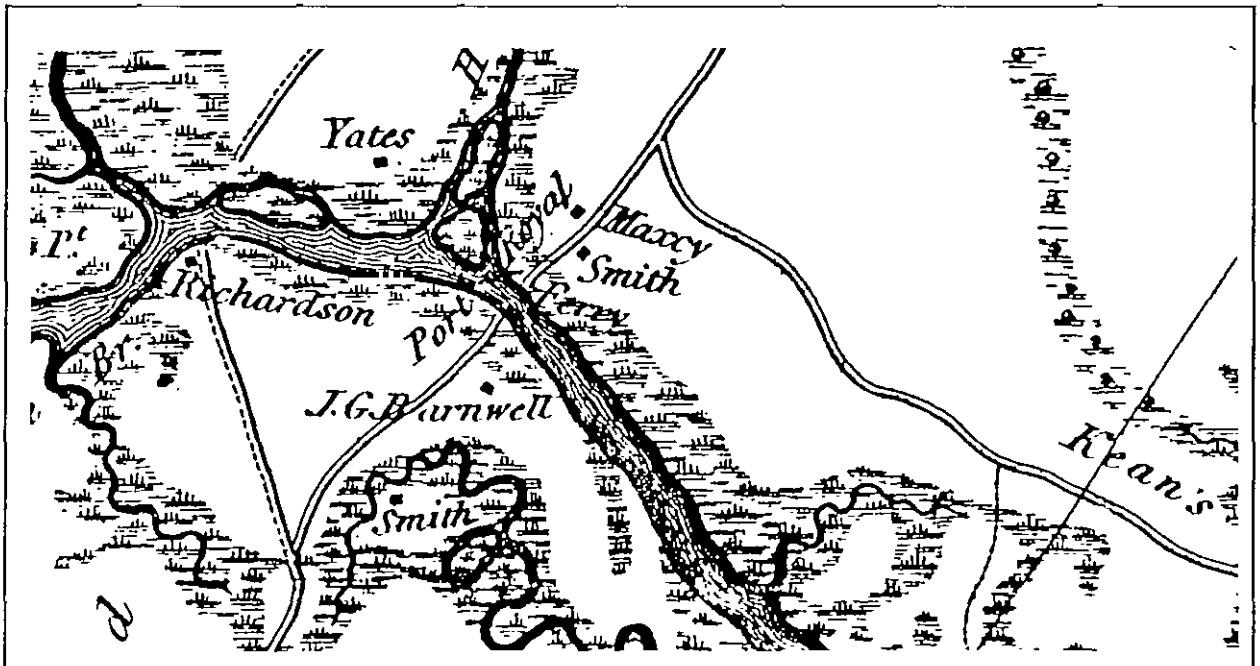

Figure 6. Portion of the 1826 Beaufort District from Mills' Atlas showing the J.G. Barnwell settlement.

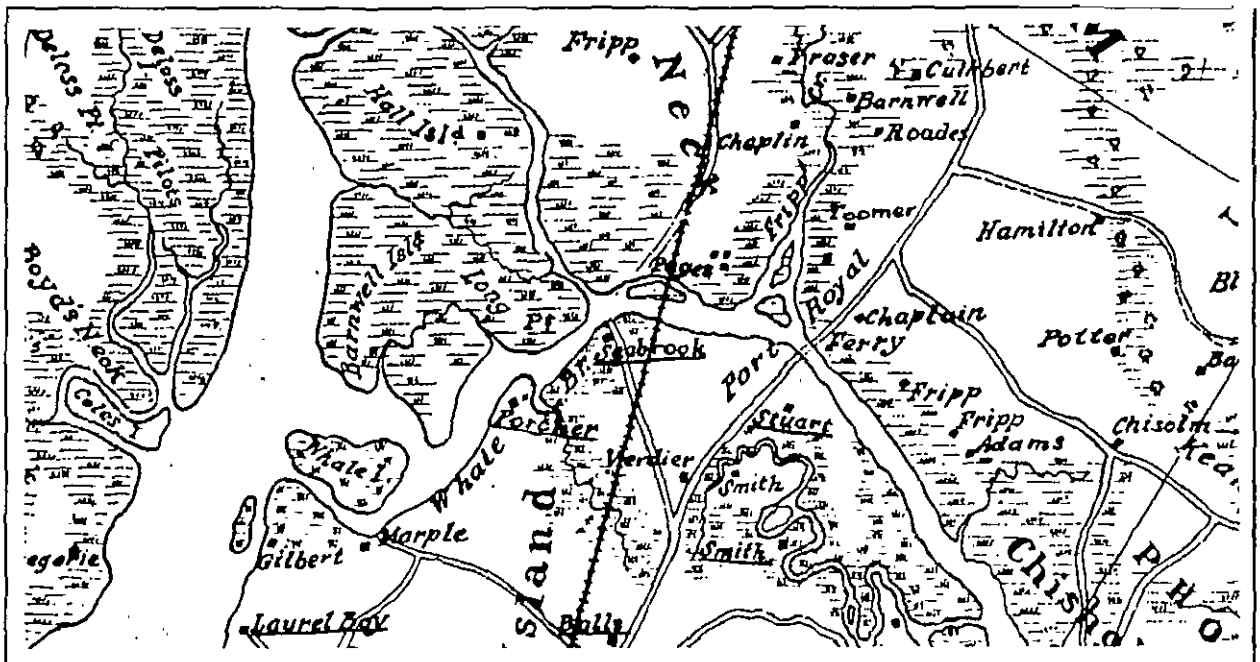

Figure 7. Portion of the 1873 Law and Kirk map of Beaufort County showing the Stuart settlement.

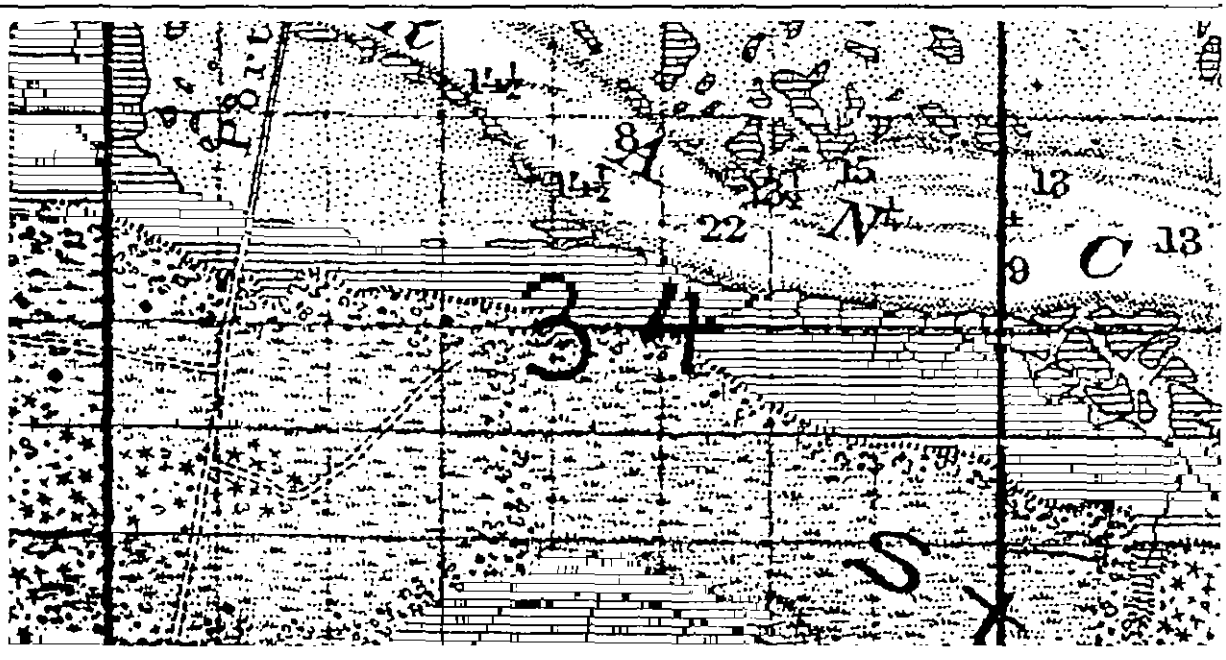

Figure 8. U.S. Coastal Survey Whale Branch map dated 1876 showing the project area and probable main house.

Paleoindian and Archaic Periods

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drill (Coe 1964; Goodyear et al. 1989; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Sea level during much of this period is expected to have been as much as 65 feet lower than present, so many sites may be inundated (Flint 1971). Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10). Brooks and Scurry note that:

> Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically small, relatively few in number and contain low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

Alternatively, the general sparsity of Archaic sites in the coastal zone may be the result of a more attractive environment inland adjacent to the floodplain swamps of major drainages. Of course, this is not necessarily an alternative explanation, since coastal Archaic sites may represent only a small segment in the total settlement system.

Early Woodland

The earliest phase of the Woodland period (see Figure 9) is called Stallings, after the type site excavated by the Cosgroves in 1929 (Claflin 1931). These "Stallings Island people" produced a rich cultural assemblage of bone and antler work, polished stone items, grooved and perforated "net sinkers" or steatite disks, stone tools (including projectile points, knives, scrapers, and cruciform drills), and fiber tempered pottery (see also Williams 1968). It was over a decade before the typological significance of the Stallings ware was recognized and a formal type description was offered (Fairbanks 1942; Griffin 1943). The definitive feature of this pottery is its large quantity of fiber, now identified as Spanish Moss (Simpkins and Scoville 1981), included in the paste prior to firing.

The elaborate Savannah River drainage sites such as Stallings Island, Fennel Hill, Rabbit Mount, and Bilbo, are all characterized by large quantities of either fresh water mussels or tidal oysters, large quantities of artifacts, and abundant features. These middens, however, represent only one aspect of the Stallings settlement system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island

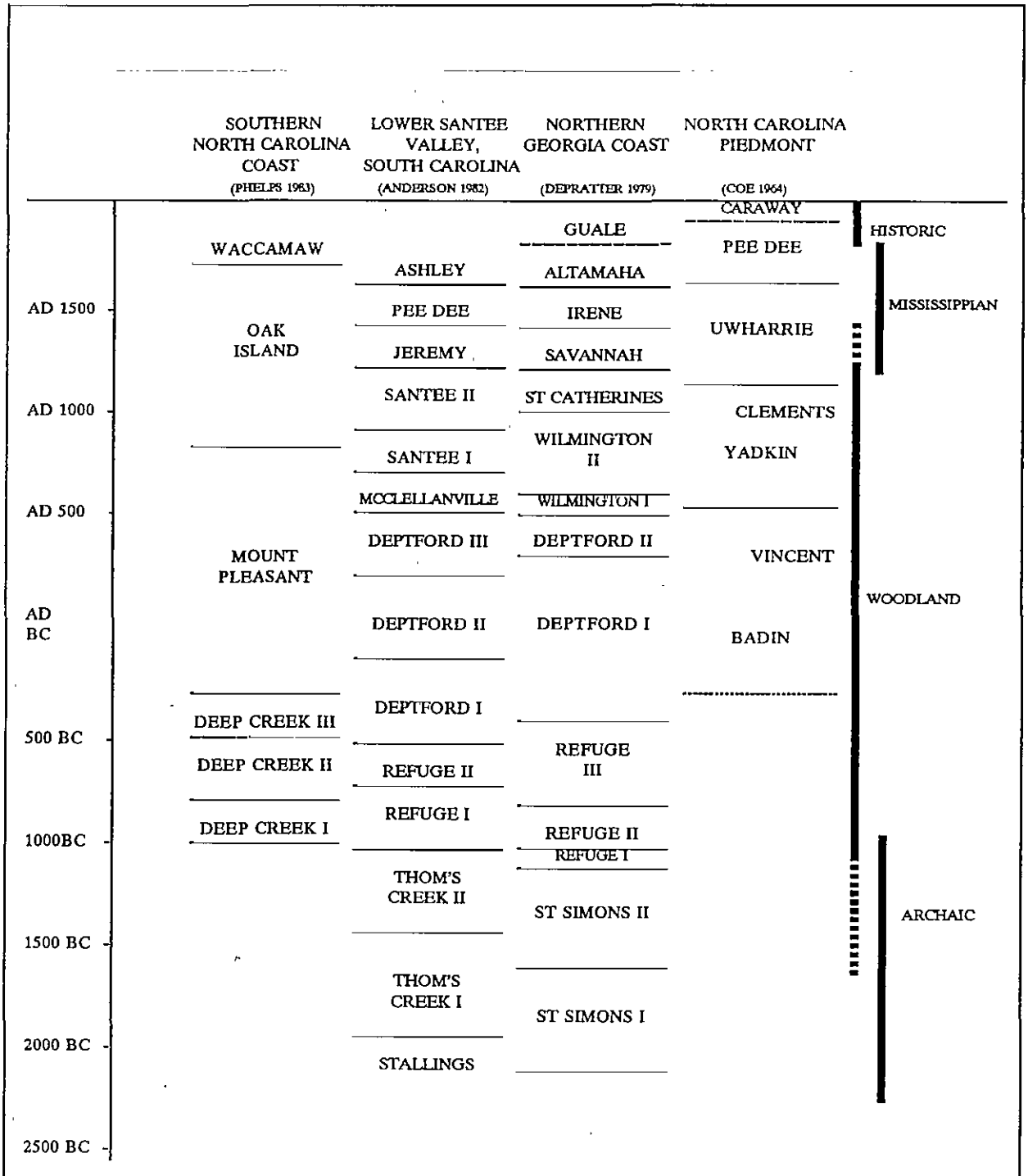

Figure 9. Woodland Period phases in the South Carolina locality.

(Trinkley 1981b), some evidence intensive occupation with features and a rich cultural assemblage, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

At the Fish Haul site a Stallings phase "D"-shaped structure containing about 90 square feet of floor area has been identified (Trinkley 1986:145-147) and Stoltman (1974:51-54) recovered a lean-to structure at Rabbit Mount. The function of essentially non-shell midden sites such as Love and Fish Haul is only partially understood at present, although shellfish seasonality and ethnobotanical studies (Claassen 1986; Lawrence 1986; Trinkley 1986) are beginning to suggest late fall and winter occupation. These may represent early sites when the subsistence base was diffuse, prior to intensive riverine and estuarine exploitation. Alternatively, and more likely, they may represent a seasonal round in the Stallings settlement system. Riverine shellfish may have been gathered in the fall when the Savannah River and its tributaries were low and clear, while other resources away from the river were exploited during the period of high discharge in the late winter and spring (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985:13). Additional work within the Savannah drainage is necessary to understand more fully the relationship between large shell middens, dense non-shell upland and coastal sites, and sparse upland and coastal "scatters."

The following Thom's Creek phase dates as early as 2220±350 B.C. (UGA-584) from Spanish Mount in Charleston County (Sutherland 1974) and continues to at least 935±175 B.C. (UGA-2901), based on a date from the Lighthouse Point Shell Ring, also in Charleston County (Trinkley 1980b:191-192). The Thom's Creek phase is characterized by an artifact assemblage almost identical to that of Stallings sites. The only major differences include the replacement of fiber tempering with sand, or a clay not requiring tempering, and the gradual reduction of projectile point size.

Thom's Creek pottery, first typed by Griffin (1945), consists of sandy paste pottery decorated with the motifs common to the Stallings series, including punctations (reed and shell), finger pinching, simple stamping, incising, and very late in the phase, finger smoothed (Trinkley 1980a). Investigations at the Lighthouse Point and Stratton Place shell rings, stratigraphic studies at Spanish Mount and Fig Island, radiocarbon dates from Lighthouse Point and Venning Creek, and the study of surface collections from a number of sites, have suggested a temporal ordering of the Thom's Creek series. Reed punctated pottery appears to be the oldest, followed by the shell punctated and finger pinched motifs. Late in the Thom's Creek phase, perhaps by 1000 B.C., there is the addition of Thom's Creek Finger Smoothed (Trinkley 1983a:44). Vessel forms include deep, straight sided jars and shallow conoidal bowls. Lip treatments are simple, and coiling fractures are common. Firing of the Thom's Creek vessels is certainly better than that evidenced for Stallings, but there continues to be abundant incompletely oxidized specimens.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia. There appears to be strong concentration of Thom's Creek sites in the Santee River drainage and the central South Carolina coast (see Anderson 1975:184).

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens; small middens with only sparse shell; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

Limited testing has been conducted at one small Thom's Creek non-shell midden on Sol Legare Island (38CH779) in Charleston County, South Carolina (Trinkley 1984). The site evidenced

very limited reliance on shellfish and faunal remains, with the bulk of the food remains consisting of large mammals. Excavations also identified a portion of a probable Thom's Creek post structure situated about 180 feet inland from the marsh edge.

Excavations at other Coastal Zone Thom's Creek sites includes the work by Sutherland (1973, 1974) at the Spanish Mount shell midden (38CH62). While this work has never been completely published, the site appears to represent a seasonally occupied camp with a diffuse subsistence base, including reliance on shellfish, floral material, fish, and mammals.

By far the most work has been conducted at Thom's Creek phase shell rings (see Trinkley 1980b, 1985). These sites are circular middens about 130 to 300 feet in diameter, 2 to 6 feet in height, and 40 feet in width at their bases, with clear interiors. These doughnut-shaped accumulations were formed as small mounds, arranged around an open ground area, and gradually blended together. The ring itself is composed of varying proportions of shell, animal bone, pottery, soil, and other artifacts. These shell rings were apparently mundane occupation sites for fairly large social units which lived on the ring, disposed of garbage underfoot, and used the clear interiors as areas for communal activities. The sites further suggest relatively permanent, stable village life as early as 1600 B.C., with a subsistence base oriented toward large and small mammals, fish, shellfish, and hickory nut resources (Trinkley 1985).

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePratter 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from 1070±115 B.C. (QC-784) to 510±100 B.C. (QC-785), is found primarily along the South Carolina coast from the Savannah drainage as far north as the Santee River (Williams 1968:208). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

The Refuge series pottery is similar in many ways to the preceding Thom's Creek wares. The paste is compact and sandy or gritty, while surface treatments include sloppy simple stamped, dentate stamped, and random punctate decorations (see DePratter 1979:115-123; Williams 1968:198-208). Anderson et al. note that these typologies are "marred by a lack of reference to the Thom's Creek series" (Anderson et al. 1982:265) and that the Refuge Punctate and Incised types are indistinguishable from Thom's Creek wares. Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as both a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and also as a bridge to the succeeding Deptford series.

It is difficult to reconstruct the subsistence base, although the sites suggest small, seasonal camps for small groups (Trinkley 1982). The settlement fragmentation, which began at the end of the Thom's Creek phase, around 1000 B.C., probably relates to the increase in sea level, from a Thom's Creek phase low of 10 feet below the current high marsh surface at 1200 B.C. to a high of about 3 feet below the current high marsh surface at 950 B.C. (Colquhoun et al. 1980; Brooks et al. 1989). This increasing sea level drowned the tidal marshes (and sites) on which the Thom's Creek people relied. The following Refuge phase evidences the fragmentation necessary when the environment which gave rise to large sedentary populations disappeared. Hanson (1982:21-23), based on Savannah River data, suggests that subsistence stress present during the Thom's Creek phase may have resulted in an expansion of the settlement system into diverse environmental settings. It seems likely, however, that the development of mature, upland tributaries was also essential ingredient in this process (see Sassaman et al. 1989). This same "splintering" is observed on the South Carolina coast.

The Deptford culture takes its name from the type site located east of Savannah, Georgia, which was excavated in the mid-1930s (Caldwell 1943:12-16). Deptford phase sites are best recognized by the presence of fine to course sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. This pottery is typically in the form of a cylindrical vessel with a conoidal base. The flat

bottomed bowl with tetrapodal supports found at Deptford sites along the Florida Gulf coast (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:79) is very rare in South Carolina. Other Deptford phase pottery styles include cord marking, simple stamping, a complicated stamping which resembles early Swift Creek, and a geometric stamping which consists of a series of carved triangles or diamonds with interior dots (see Anderson et al. 1982:277-293; DePratter 1979).

The Deptford technology is little better known than that of the preceding Refuge phase. Shell tools are uncommon, bone tools are "extremely rare" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:77), and stone tools are rare on Coastal Zone sites. All of this indicates to some researchers that "wood must have been worked into a variety of tool types" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75). One type of stone tool associated with South Carolina Deptford sites is a very small, stemmed projectile point tentatively described as "Deptford Stemmed" (Trinkley 1980c:20-23). This point is the culmination of the Savannah River Stemmed reduction seen in the Thom's Creek and Refuge phases. Also found at Deptford sites are "medium-sized triangular points," probably similar to the Yadkin Triangular point (Coe 1964:45, 47, 49; Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75-76).

Perhaps of even greater interest is the co-occurrence of the larger triangular points (such as Badin and Yadkin) with smaller triangular forms (such as Caraway) traditionally attributed to the Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian periods. This situation has been reported at Coastal Plain sites (Blanton et al. 1986:107), Savannah River sites (Sassaman et al. 1989:157), and Coastal Zone sites (Trinkley 1990). Blanton et al. (1986) suggest that these point types were used at the same time, but perhaps for different tasks.

The traditional view of an estuarine Deptford adaptation with minor interior occupations must be re-evaluated based on the Savannah River drainage work of Brooks and Hanson (1987) and Sassaman et al. (1989:293-295) who suggest larger residential base camps and foraging zones along the Savannah River, coupled with smaller, household residences and foraging zones in the uplands along small tributaries.

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing (see Trinkley 1987). Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1960). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina, based on two radiocarbon dates of 120±130 B.C. (QC-1358) and A.D. 210±110 (QC-1357). The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

Middle Woodland

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson 1985:53). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of

wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Deptford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. Wilmington and Hanover may be viewed as regional varieties of the same ceramic tradition. The pottery is characterized almost solely by its crushed sherd (perhaps with grog as well) temper which makes up 30 to 40% of the paste and which ranges in size from 3 to 10 mm. Wilmington was first described by Caldwell and Waring (Williams 1968:113-116) from coastal Georgia work, while the Hanover description was offered by South (1960), based on a survey of the Southeastern coast of North Carolina (with incursions into South Carolina). The Wilmington phase was seen by Waring (Williams 1968:221) as intrusive from the Carolina coast, but there is considerable evidence for the inclusion of Deptford traits in the Wilmington series. For example, Caldwell and McCann (1940:n.p.) noted that, "the Wilmington complex proper contains all of the main kinds of decoration which occur in the Deptford complex with the probable exception of Deptford Linear Checkstamped" (see also Anderson et al. 1982:275). Consequently, surface treatments of cord marking, check stamping, simple stamping, and fabric impressing may be found with sherd tempered paste.

Sherd tempered Wilmington and Hanover wares are found from at least the Chowan River in North Carolina southward onto the Georgia coast. Anderson (1975:187) has found the Hanover series evenly distributed over the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, although it appears slightly more abundant north of the Edisto River. The heartland may be along the inner Coastal Plain north of the Cape Fear River in North Carolina. Radiocarbon dates for Wilmington and Hanover range from 135±85 B.C. (UM-1916) from site 38BK134 to A.D. 1120±100 (GX-2284) from a "Wilmington House" at the Charles Towne Landing site, 38CH1. Most dates, however, cluster from A.D. 400 to 900; some researchers prefer a date range of about 200 B.C. to A.D. 500 (Anderson et al. 1982:276).

Largely contemporaneous with the sherd tempered wares are what have been termed the Mount Pleasant, McClellanville, and Santee series. The Mount Pleasant series has been developed by Phelps from work along the northeastern North Carolina coast (Phelps 1983:32-35, 1984:41-44) and is a Middle Woodland refinement of South's (1960) previous Cape Fear series. The pottery is characterized by a sandy paste either with or without quantities of rounded pebbles. Surface treatments include fabric impressed, cord marked, and net impressed. Vessels are usually conoidal, although simple, hemispherical, and globular bowls are also present. The Mount Pleasant series is found from North Carolina southward to the Savannah River (being evidenced by the "Untyped Series" in Trinkley 1981b). North Carolina dates for the series range from A.D. 265±65 (UGA-1088) to A.D. 890±80 (UGA-3849). The several dates currently available from South Carolina (such as UGA-3512 of A.D. 565±70 from Pinckney Island) fall into this range of about A.D. 200 to 900.

The McClellanville (Trinkley 1981a) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excurvate rims and interior rim stamping, not so-far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series.

Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Mattassee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are known from the Mount Pleasant phase.

These Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In terms of settlement patterns, several researchers have offered some conclusions based on localized data. Michie (1980:80), for example, correlates rising sea levels with the extension of Middle Woodland shell middens further up the Port Royal estuary. Scurry and Brooks (1980:75-78) find the Middle Woodland site patterning in the Wando River affected not only by the sea level fluctuations, but also by soil types (see also Trinkley 1980b:445-446). They suggest that the strong soil correlation is the result of upland sites having functioned as extraction areas, principally for exploitation of acorns, hickory nuts, and deer. Shell midden sites, they suggest, also represent seasonal camps and therefore exhibit small size, low artifact density, and infrequent re-occupation. Ward's (1978) work in Marlboro County suggests that interior site patterning changed little from the Early to Middle Woodland. Sites continue to be found on the low, sandy ridges overlooking hardwood swamp floodplains, which suggests that while pottery styles changed, site locations, and presumably subsistence, did not (see also Ferguson 1976). Drucker and Anthony's (1978) work in Florence County, South Carolina reveals virtually continuous short-term occupation along the terraces associated with the floodplain of Lynch's Lake. DePratter's work at the Dunlap site, however, suggests that a few, relatively stable villages were present in the Middle Woodland.

Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1989:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Along the central and northern South Carolina coast, Anderson et al. (1982:303-304) suggest a continuation of the Santee series into the Late Woodland. The Hanover and Mount Pleasant series may also be found as late of A.D. 1000. Along the southeastern North Carolina coast, South (1960) has defined the Oak Island complex, which is best known for its shell tempered ceramics with cord marked, fabric impressed, simple stamped, and net impressed surface finishes. The phase is briefly discussed by Phelps (1983:48-49), but curiously this manifestation is almost unknown south of the Little River in South Carolina. Very little is known about the northern coastal South Carolina Late Woodland complexes, although sites such as 38GE32 may document the occurrence of village life in the Late Woodland.

The South Appalachian Mississippian is typically characterized by the construction of truncated temple mounds, reliance on cultivated crops, the development of a social elite, and complicated stamped pottery. The best information for the coastal area comes from the only incompletely reported excavations at the Charles Town Landing site (South 1971). In addition, Anderson (1989) provides an excellent synthesis of Mississippian research in South Carolina, observing that "while we have a fair appreciation for the culmination of the Mississippian in South Carolina, its origins and immediate Woodland antecedents remains largely unknown at the present" (Anderson 1989:114; see also Anderson 1994).

Anderson also notes the need for additional research in the area of:

> relationships between Woodland and Mississippian occupations in South Carolina, particularly the mechanisms bringing about the transition between the seemingly markedly dissimilar forms of social organization and subsistence adaptation (Anderson 1989:113).

While Trinkley (1981a, 1983a, 1983b) has offered a cultural sequence for the Mississippian remains in the coastal area that encompasses the Jeremy, "classic" Pee Dee, "post-classic" Pee Dee, Wachesaw, and Kimbel series, Anderson et al. (1982:312-319) offers an alternative perspective incorporating Pee Dee and Ashley wares.

Protohistoric

The history of the numerous small coastal Indian tribes is poorly known. As Mooney noted, the coastal tribes:

> were of but small importance politically; no sustained mission work was ever attempted among them, and there were but few literary men to take an interest in them. War, pestilence, whiskey and systematic slave hunts had nearly exterminated the aboriginal occupants of the Carolinas before any body had thought them of sufficient importance to ask who they were, how they lived, or what were their beliefs and opinions (Mooney 1894:6).

In truth, our knowledge of these groups has also been limited because too few scholars have taken an active interest in the primary sources and there has been too little desire to evaluate critically the early research by Mooney (1894) and Swanton (1952). For South Carolina Anderson (1989:117-118) briefly notes the current status of ethnohistoric research.

Historic Synopsis

The Spanish and French

The first Spanish explorations in the Carolina low country were conducted in the 1520s under the direction of Lucas Vasquez de Ayllon and Francisco Gordillo. One of the few areas explored by Gordillo which can be identified with any certainty is Santa Elena (St. Helena). Apparently Port Royal Sound was entered and land fall made at Santa Elena on Santa Elena's Day, August 18, 1520. "Cape Santa Elena," according to Quattlebaum (1956:8) was probably Hilton Head (Hoffman 1984:423).

Gordillo's accounts spurred Ayllon to seek a royal commission both to explore further the land and to establish a settlement in the land called Chicora (Quattlebaum 1956:12-17). In July 1526 Ayllon set sail for Chicora with a fleet of six vessels and has been thought to have established the settlement of San Miguel del Galdape in the vicinity of Winyah Bay (Quattlebaum 1956:23). Hoffman (1984:425) has more recently suggested that the settlement was at the mouth of the Santee River (Ayllon's Jordan River). Ferguson (n.d.:1) has suggested that San Miguel was established at Santa Elena in the Port Royal area. More recently, scholars have suggested that the settlement was on the Georgia coast, in the vicinity of St. Catherines Island (Rowland et al. 1996). Regardless, the colony was abandoned in the winter of 1526 with

the survivors reaching Hispaniola in 1527 (Quattlebaum 1956:27).

The French, in response to increasing Spanish activity in the New World, undertook a settlement in the land of Chicora in 1562. Charlesfort was established in May 1562 under the direction of Jean Ribaut. This settlement fared no better than the earlier Spanish fort of San Miguel and was abandoned within the year (Quattlebaum 1956:42-56). Ribaut was convinced that his settlement was on the Jordan River in the vicinity of Ayllon's Chicora (Hoffman 1984:432). Recent historical and archaeological studies suggest that Charlesfort may have been situated on Port Royal Island in the vicinity of the Town of Port Royal (South 1982a, see also Rowland et al. 1996:23). The deserted Charlesfort was burned by the Spanish in 1564 (South 1982a:1-2). A year later France's second attempt to establish its claim in the New World was thwarted by the Spanish destruction of the French Fort Caroline on the St. John's River. The massacre at Fort Caroline ended French attempts at colonization on the southeast Atlantic coast.

To protect against any future French intrusion such as Charlesfort, the Spanish proceeded to establish a major outpost in the Beaufort area. The town of Santa Elena was built in 1566, a year after a fort was built in St. Augustine. Three sequential forts were constructed: Fort San Salvador (1566-1570), Fort San Felipe (1570-1576), and Fort San Marcos (1577-1587). In spite of Indian hostilities and periodic burning of the town and forts, the Spanish maintained this settlement until 1587 when it was finally abandoned (South 1979, 1982a, 1982b). Spanish influence, however, continued through a chain of missions spreading up the Atlantic coast from St. Augustine into Georgia. That mission activity, however, declined noticeably during the eighteenth century, primarily because of 1702 and 1704 attacks on St. Augustine and outlying missions by South Carolina Governor James Moore (Deagan 1983:25-26, 40).

The British Proprietory Period

British influence in the New World began in the fifteenth century with the Cabot voyages, but the southern coast did not attract serious attention until King Charles II granted Carolina to the Lords Proprietors in 1663. In August 1663 William Hilton sailed from Barbados to explore the Carolina territory, spending a great deal of time in the Port Royal area (Holmgren 1959). Almost chosen for the first English colony, Hilton Head Island was passed over by Sir John Yeamans in favor of the more protected Charles Town site on the west bank of the Ashley River in 1670 (Clowse 1971:23-24; Holmgren 1959:39).

Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through the mercantile system, which was designed to profit the mother country by providing raw materials unavailable in England (Clowse 1971). Charleston was settled by English citizens, including a number from Barbados, and by Huguenot refugees. Black slaves were brought directly from Africa, as well as Barbados.

The Charleston settlement was moved from the mouth of the Ashley River to the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers in 1680, but the colony was a thorough disappointment to the Proprietors. It failed to grow as expected, did not return the anticipated profit, and failed to evidence workable local government (Ferris 1968:124-125). The early economy was based almost exclusively on Indian trade, naval stores, lumber, and cattle. Rice began emerging as a money crop in the late seventeenth century, but did not markedly improve the economic well-being of the colony until the eighteenth century (Clowse 1971).

Meanwhile, Scottish Covenanters under Lord Cardross established Stuart's Town on Scot's Island (Port Royal) in 1684, where it existed for four years until destroyed by the Spanish. It was not until 1698 that the area was again occupied by the English. Both John Stuart and Major Robert Daniell took possession of lands on St. Helena and Port Royal islands. The town of Beaufort was

founded in 1711 although it was not immediately settled. Spring Island was granted to John Cockran in 1706 in two parcels of 500 acres each (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Colonial Series, Royal Grants, volume 39, page 6). One grant mentions that the land is "part of an Island over against Alatamaha Town."

While most of the Beaufort Indian groups were persuaded to move to Polawana Island in 1712, the Yemassee, part of the Creek Confederacy, revolted in 1715. By 1718 the Yemassee were defeated and forced southward to Spanish protection. Consequently, the Beaufort area, known as St. Helena Parish, Granville County, was for the first time relatively safe from both the Spanish and the Indians. The Yemassee, however, continued occasional raids into South Carolina, such as the 1728 destruction of the Passage Fort at Bloody Point on Daufuskie Island (Starr 1984:16). In the same year the English raid on St. Augustine succeeded in breaking the Spanish influence and the remnant Indian groups made peace with the English. The results for the Beaufort area, however, were mixed. While there was a semblance of peace, frontier settlements were largely deserted, population growth was slow, and the Indian trade was diverted from Beaufort to Savannah.

The British Colonial Period

Although peace marked the Carolina colony, the Proprietors continued to have disputes with the populace, primarily over the colony's economic stagnation and deterioration. In 1727 the colony's government virtually broke down when the Council and the Commons were unable to agree on legislation to provide more bills of credit (Clowse 1971:238). This, coupled with the disastrous depression of 1728, brought the colony to the brink of mob violence. Clowse notes that the "initial step toward aiding South Carolina came when the proprietors were eliminated" in 1720 (Clowse 1971:241).

While South Carolina's economic woes were far from solved by this transfer, the Crown's Board of Trade began taking steps to remedy many of the problems. A new naval store law was passed in 1729 with possible advantages accruing to South Carolina. In 1730 the Parliament opened Carolina rice trade with markets in Spain and Portugal. The Board of Trade also dealt with the problem of the colony's financial solvency (Clowse 1971:245-247). Clowse notes that these changes, coupled with new land policies, "allowed the colony to go into an era of unprecedented expansion" (Clowse 1971:249). South Carolina's position was buttressed by the settlement of Georgia in 1733.

By 1730 the colony's population had risen to about 30,000 individuals, 20,000 of whom were black slaves (Clowse 1971:Table 1). The majority of these slaves were used in South Carolina's expanding rice industry. In the 1730 harvest year 48,155 barrels of rice were reported, up 15,771 barrels or 33% from the previous year (Clowse 1971:Table 3). Although rice was grown in the Beaufort area, it did not become a major crop in South Carolina until after the Revolutionary War. Rice was never a significant crop on the Beaufort Sea Islands, where ranch farming was favored because of its economic returns and favorable climate (Starr 1984:26-27). Elsewhere, however, rice monoculture shaped the social, political, and economic systems which produced and perpetuated the coastal plantation system prior to the rise of cotton culture.

Although indigo was known in the Carolina colony as early as 1669 and was being planted the following year, it was not until the 1740s that it became a major cash crop (Huneycutt 1949). While indigo was difficult to process, its success was partially due to it being complementary to rice. Huneycutt notes that planters were "able to 'dovetail' the work season of the two crops so that a single gang of slaves could cultivate both staples" (Huneycutt 1949:18). Indigo continued to be the main cash crop of South Carolina until the Revolutionary War fatally disrupted the industry.

During the Revolutionary War the British occupied Charleston for over two and one-half years (1780-1782). A post was established in Beaufort to coordinate forays into the inland waterways after Prevost's retreat from the Battle of Stono Ferry (Federal Writer's Project 1938:7; Rowland 1978:288). British earthworks were

established around Port Royal and on Ladys Island (Rowland 1978:290). The removal of the royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos during and after the war with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34).

The Antebellum Period

While freed of Britain and her mercantilism, the new United States found its economy thoroughly disrupted. There was no longer a bounty on indigo, and in fact Britain encouraged competition from the British and French West Indies and India "to embarrass her former colonies" (Huneycutt 1949:44). As a consequence the economy shifted to tidewater rice production and cotton agriculture. Lepionka notes that "long staple cotton of the Sea Islands was of far higher value than the common variety (60 cents a pound compared to 15 cents a pound in the late 1830s) and this became the major cash crop of the coastal islands" (Lepionka et al. 1983:20). It was cotton, in the Beaufort area, that brought a full establishment of the plantation economy. Lepionka concisely states that:

> [t]he cities of Charleston and Savannah and numerous smaller towns such as Beaufort and Georgetown were supported in their considerable splendor on this wealth . . . . An aristocratic planter class was created, but was based on the essential labor of black slavery without which the plantation economy could not function. Consequently, the demographic pattern of a black majority first established in colonial times was reinforced (Lepionka et al. 1983:21).

Mills, in 1826, provides a thorough commentary on the Beaufort District noting that:

> Beaufort is admirably situated for commerce, possessing one of the finest ports and spacious harbors in the world . . . . There is no district in the state, either better watered, of more extended navigation, or possessing a larger portion of rich land, than Beaufort: more than one half of the territory is rich swamp land, capable of being improved so as to yield abundantly (Mills 1826:367).

Describing the Beaufort islands, Mills comments that they were "beautiful to the eye, rich in production, and withal salubrious" (Mills 1826:372). Land prices ranged from $60 an acre for the best, $30 for "second quality," and as low as 25 cents for the "inferior" lands. Grain and sugarcane were cultivated in small quantities for home use while:

> [t]he principal attention of the planter is . . . devoted to the cultivation of cotton and rice, especially the former. The sea islands, or salt water lands, yield cotton of the finest staple, which commands the highest price in market; it has been no uncommon circumstance for such cotton to bring $1 a pound. In favorable seasons, or particular spots, nearly 300 weight has been raised from an acre, and an active field hand can cultivate upwards of four acres, exclusive of one acre and half of corn and ground provisions (Mills 1826:368).

Reference to the 1860 agricultural census reveals that of the 891,228 acres of farmland, 274,015 (30.7%) were improved. In contrast, only 28% of the State's total farmland was improved, and only 17% of the neighboring Colleton District's farm land was improved. Even in wealthy Charleston District only 17.8% of the farm land was improved (Kennedy 1864:128-129). The cash value of Beaufort farms was $9,900,652, while the state average by county was only $4,655,083. The value of Beaufort farms was greater than any other district in the state for that year, and only

Georgetown listed a greater cash value of farming implements and machinery (perhaps reflecting the more specialized equipment needed for rice production).

The record of wealth and prosperity, such as it was, is tempered by the realization that it was based on the racial imbalance typical of Southern slavery. In 1820 there were 32,199 people enumerated in Beaufort District, 84.9% of whom were black (Mills 1826:372). While the 1850 population had risen to 38,805, the racial breakdown had changed little, with 84.7% being black (83.2% were slaves). Thus, while the statewide ratio of free white to black slave was 1:1.4, the Beaufort ratio was 1:5.4 (DeBow 1853:338).

Civil War and the Postbellum

Hilton Head Island fell to Union forces on November 7, 1861 and was occupied by the Expeditionary Corps under the direction of General T.W. Sherman. Beaufort, deserted by the Confederate troops and the white towns-people, was occupied by the Union forces several weeks later. A single white person, who remained loyal to the Federal government, was found on Ladys Island (Johnson 1969:189). Hilton Head became the Headquarters for the Department of the South and served as the staging area for a variety of military campaigns. A brief sketch of this period, generally accurate, is offered by Holmgren (1959), while a similarly popular account is provided by Carse (1981). As a result of Hilton Head and Beaufort's early occupation by Union forces, all of the plantations fell to military occupation, a large number of blacks flocked to the area, and a "Department of Experiments" was born. An excellent account of the "Port Royal Experiment" is provided by Rose (1964), while the land policies on St. Helena are explored by McGuire (1985).

Recently, Trinkley (1986) has examined the freedmen village of Mitchelville on Hilton Head Island. One result of the Mitchelville work was to document how little is actually known about the black heritage and postbellum history of the sea islands. Even the social research spearheaded by the University of North Carolina's Institute for Research in Social Science at Chapel Hill in the early twentieth century (e.g. Johnson 1969, Woofter 1930) failed to record much of the activities on islands such as Hilton Head.

McGuire (1982, 1985) provides a detailed account of the land policies in the area during the Civil War and her studies should be consulted for detailed information. In general, however, blacks slowly came to own a large proportion of the available land. Certificates of possession were eventually issued for a number of the sea island plantations (McGuire 1982:36). During the postbellum period previous owners slowly came forward to reclaim, or redeem, land confiscated by the Federal government. The 1872 redemption process was not totally successful, partially because some tracts had such low value. By the 1890s a program was established to provide owners unsuccessful at either restoration or redemption with token compensation (McGuire 1982:77; S.C. Department of Archives and History, Secretary of State Records, Beaufort County Tax Claims, Direct Tax Compensation Book IX/2/4/3B).

During the late nineteenth century most of the sea island plantations continued as a rural, isolated agrarian communities. The new plantation owners attempted to forge an economic relationship with the free black laborers and found a multitude of problems, including the need to pay higher wages, increasing problems with the cotton boll weevil, and decreasing fertility. The letters of G.C. Hardy, the manager of the Eustis Plantation on Ladys Island in the 1870s, clearly reveal the problems faced during this period. Hardy, in his letters to Frederic Eustis, discusses the rising labor costs and the serious losses of cotton to the boll weevil (South Caroliniana Library, Frederic A. Eustis Collection).

In the 1870s a new form of livelihood was introduced -- the mining of phosphate for fertilizer. While both land and river rock mining were conducted in South Carolina, the Beaufort area saw primarily river dredging to acquire the phosphate ore present as gravel, although land mining of phosphate nodules also took place (Mathews et al. 1980:27, 31). As the industry began to decline in the early twentieth century,

blacks returned to agriculture and oyster factories.

Woofter (1930) provides information on the agricultural practices of the St. Helena blacks in the early twentieth century, noting that the population was largely stable, with most blacks remaining in the vicinity of their parents' "home" plantations (Woofter 1930:265). While islands, such as St. Helena, which were large and easily accessible began to change more rapidly during this period, the smaller, more isolated islands, such as Hilton Head, maintained very clear connections with the past which have been repeatedly documented through oral histories.

FIELD INVESTIGATION AND RESULTS

Methodology

Proposed Methodology

The study requested by the Beaufort School District was characterized as a reconnaissance level investigation, as required by Beaufort County's Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance. Of course, the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office's *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations* does not specifically define the level of effort for reconnaissance level investigations. Essentially *anything* can be called a reconnaissance from a "windshield survey" to one which includes extensive shovel testing.

We proposed one day of field investigations at the study tract, with the investigations focusing on several goals. First, we originally intended to concentrate our survey efforts on the school site, since that would be the area suffering the greatest impact. Second, we would search for any structural remains, such as tabby ruins. And third, we would briefly investigate any other "high probability" areas within the project boundaries. Such high probability areas are typically those near water on high, well drained sandy soils. If there was open ground we proposed conducting a pedestrian survey — essentially walking over the ground and seeing if any artifacts were exposed. Otherwise, we anticipated excavating judgmental shovel tests and screening the soil through ¼-inch mesh in order to "see" below the ground.

Any archaeological sites identified during this study would be recorded with the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology and we proposed curating the resulting collections with that agency. We pointed out in our proposal that it is typically not possible (or appropriate) for a professional archaeologist to provide recommendations concerning the eligibility of sites identified through such a reconnaissance study for inclusion on the National Register. Such assessments require considerably more detailed study than is possible during a reconnaissance study.

In addition, reconnaissance studies are not adequate to meet the requirements of compliance review by the Corps of Engineers, Office of Ocean and Coastal Resource Management, or the State Historic Preservation Office. Nevertheless, the reconnaissance study would determine the likelihood that archaeological remains are present on the proposed 56 acre school tract.

Beyond the goals outlined and the methodology for reaching them discussed here, no further research questions were proposed for this initial study. It was essentially explorative and explicative, attempting to help the Beaufort School District better understand the archaeological resources they might likely encounter on this particular parcel.

Implemented Methodology

The proposed methodology was rather significantly changed once we were in the field. One of the first factors affecting the approach to the field investigations was that we were unable to obtain detailed site plan maps prior to our field investigations. In fact, the only map we had was a hand drawn sketch map locating the property at the northeast corner of Stuarts Road and US 21.

What might have been a disastrous situation was somewhat mitigated by our discovery that the school tract had recently received extensive land surveying. There were a number of cut lines, placed at 100 foot intervals roughly perpendicular to Stuarts Road (Figure 10), and survey markers over the entire parcel. These cut lines allowed us to more precisely determine the location of our findings.

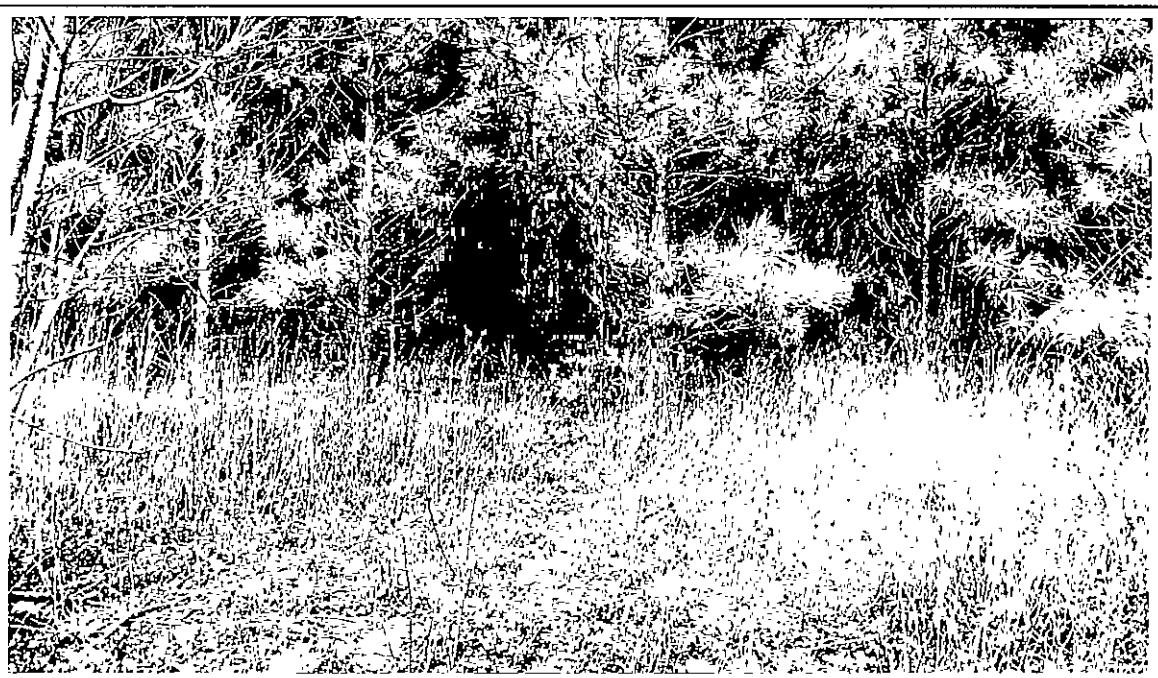

Figure 10. Example of a survey cut line used as a shovel test transect.

We also discovered that a relatively small portion of the survey tract was open and amenable to a pedestrian survey. In addition, the open areas (with the exception of one large fallow field) were primarily small food plots established by hunters. Consequently, a pedestrian survey would reveal relatively little about the archaeological resources of the tract.

The final factor affecting the implementation of the survey methodology was our discovery through background research that it was probable that a major plantation complex was situated on the parcel. This realization, we believed, demanded a more aggressive, and intensive, survey than originally proposed. Nevertheless, it was necessary to stay with the time and financial constraints of a reconnaissance level investigations.

Consequently, we determined that the best approach would be to use the survey cut lines as access points to the property and conduct shovel testing. We chose to use every other cut line, establishing our transects at 200 foot intervals, although the shovel tests themselves were conducted at 100 foot intervals. These shovel tests were approximately 1-foot square and were excavated to subsoil, typically a yellow sand. All fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the holes were backfilled afterwards.

The transects were sequentially from west to east (running from Transect 1 through 11, with the first three transects spaced 100 feet apart and all subsequent transects spaced 200 feet apart). These transects are shown on Figure 2. Shovel tests along each transect began with number one, about 100 feet from the center-line of Stuarts Road and were numbered sequentially. Most transects had been 11 and 13 shovel tests. A total of 121 shovel tests were excavated on the school tract.

In addition to the shovel testing, open areas encountered on transects were examined, as was the large fallow field in the central portion of the survey tract.

At the completion of the field work we were able to obtain a tree and topographic map for

the school site.

Identified Site

Forty-three of the 121 shovel tests (35.5%) were positive, containing cultural remains (pottery, ceramics, glass, nails, flakes, brick, or other materials). In addition, six distinct areas of dense surface remains were also encountered. These different surface collection areas and positive shovel tests were plotted on the tree and topographic map in order to more accurate determine preliminary or provisional site boundaries (shown on the USGS topographic map in Figure 11).

The survey resulted in the recovery of both prehistoric and historic materials, suggesting that distinct site areas or perhaps even distinct sites may be present. Likewise, the distribution of historic remains is probably not continuous in the identified site area since there are likely different loci in the site. Nevertheless, only one site has been identified and we have made no effort to distinguish loci such as the main settlement or the slave row. Reconnaissance level investigations simply do not provide the data to allow such refinements in site boundaries.

The identified site has been recorded at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as 38BU1689. The central UTM for this site is E524100 N3599350. It is estimated to measure about 1,400 feet east-west by as much as 900 feet north-south, based on the dispersion of both surface remains and positive shovel tests. This distribution is found from the marsh edge southward to within a few hundred feet of Stuarts Road. The site tends to be situated slightly off-center east-west, with the eastern boundary within about 100 feet of the property line, while the western boundary is from 200 to 400 feet east of US 21.

The site is found on both Chisolm and Coosaw soils, and it seems that the densest concentrations of historic materials may be found in the central portion of the tract, where the better drained Chisolm soils are found.

Since the site covers such a large area, there are a number of different vegetation areas included. Fairly dense remains were found in the open, fallow field, as well as in several of the food plots. Portions of the site are found in areas of planted pines, as well as in the maritime hardwoods adjacent to the marsh edge.

The topography, vegetation, and shovel tests all confirm that virtually all of the site area has been cultivated at one time. The shovel tests, however, do not reveal Ap horizons deeper than about 1.0 foot and the plowzone appears somewhat more shallow in several areas (suggestive of mule plowing, which typically does less damage than modern equipment).

A wide range of materials were recovered from this site. Prehistoric lithic materials include a fragment of a Late Archaic metavolcanic Savannah River Stemmed projectile point, a chert Caraway projectile point, and a small quantity of chert flakes. Prehistoric pottery includes both Deptford and Savannah wares, although a majority of the pottery consists of small sherds (under 1-inch in diameter) typically found in plowed contexts.

The Deptford pottery includes plain, cord marked, fabric impressed, and simple stamped. The paste in this small sample is somewhat variable, although it tends toward coarse sand. The Savannah wares are less common and only a single cord marked specimen was identified.

While scattered shell is certainly present, these prehistoric remains do not appear associated with shell middens. In fact, the shell occurs in site areas where prehistoric remains are not present, so it is just as likely associated with the historic occupation. The prehistoric remains are also somewhat unusual in the presence of lithic materials.

Historic materials include specimens from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Although a very few specimens are suggestive of an occupation as late as 1890, the bulk fall into the range of 1780 through 1860. We recovered a range of domestic and architectural specimens and several areas of the site produced small

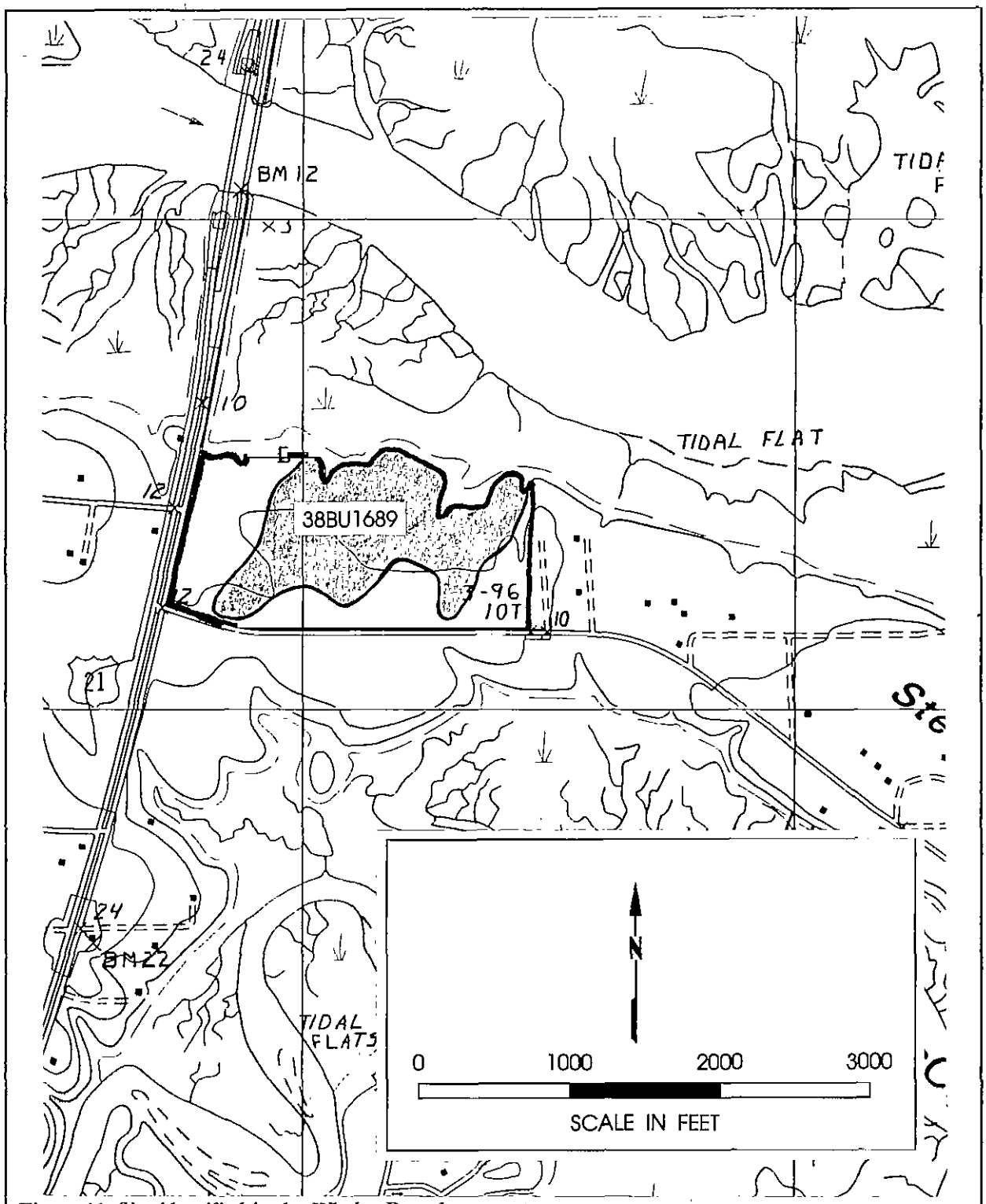

Figure 11. Site identified in the Whales Branch survey tract.

Table 1.
Recovered Artifacts

			Creamware		Pearlware				Whiteware						Window		Kaolin Pipe		UID			Small						
Prov	Delft	LGS	u	a	u	hp	tp	a	u	a	tp	e	Por	Glass	Glass	Nails	B	S	Iron	D	S	Sherds	F	CSPP	Daub	Bone	Colono	SW
T1 ST2																			1									
T2 ST9														2														
T3 ST6														1														
T3 ST9																										2		
T4 ST6									1					3			1						1					
T4 ST7														1														
T4 ST12																				1								
T5 ST1																						1				.		
T5 ST4		1			2					1				5	1									1	1	1		
T5 ST5	1	3	2			1							1	3	1										1	3		
T5 ST6														4								1			2	1		
T5 ST8														2														
T5 ST9										1				1												1		
T5 ST10											1			2	1	1						1						
T5 ST12																						1						
T6 ST5	1																					3						1
T6 ST6		1	2																									
T6 ST7														1														
T6 ST11					1									1														
T7 ST2																					1							
T7 ST3																										1		
T7 ST7																							1					
T7 ST12							1																					
T8 ST4																						1						
T8 ST5																						1						
T8 ST7																										1		
T8 ST8																						2						
T8 ST9																						3						
T9 ST4																				1								
T9 ST6																1						1						
T9 ST8														1														
T9 ST10																						1						
T10 ST1																						4						
T10 ST2																				3		3						
Surface 1			1		1				8	1		2		5								1						2
Surface 2			2		1				1	1				1														1
Surface 3			4		2		1	1	3																			
Surface 4												1	1					1		6		20	3	1				
Surface 5									2											1								
Surface 6				1					3	1				3										1				

LGS = lead glazed slipware, u = undecorated, a = annular, hp = hand painted, tp = transfer printed, e = edged, Por = porcelain, Glass = container glass, B = bowl, S = stem, D = Deptford pottery, S = Savannah pottery, F = flakes, CSPP = projectile point, SW = stoneware

concentrations of brick and mortar.

The container glass is dominated by "black" glass, including both specimens which appear to date from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Also present is brown, aqua, and clear glass, as well as one specimen of manganese glass. Stonewares include both utilitarian salt glazed specimens and also ginger beer bottle fragments.

These remains are consistent with the limited historic documentation which suggests at least a mid- to late-eighteenth (delft, lead glazed slipware, and creamware) through mid-nineteenth (whiteware and manganese glass) century plantation settlement. There are a range of ceramic types (earthenwares, stonewares, and porcelain) and decorative motifs (edged, banded, hand painted, and transfer printed) which probably relate to the presence of both higher and lower status (i.e., owner and slave) occupations.

CONCLUSIONS

Nature of the Site

Although it is not possible to offer an assessment of the identified sites potential eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places, we do have a fairly good understanding of its components. There is good evidence that the site has been occupied since the Late Archaic, with the densest prehistoric occupation being during the Middle Woodland Deptford phase. There is some, albeit limited, evidence of occupation into the Late Woodland or perhaps Mississippian Period.

This prehistoric occupation appears fairly dispersed across the site, suggesting that there may be multiple camps or concentrations of material which have perhaps been blurred by plowing. None of the suspected concentrations appear to be associated with an intact shell midden. In fact, the shell is so thinly dispersed we are inclined to suggest that the prehistoric occupations were not shell middens. This suggests that some activity was taking place on the edge of the Whale Branch marsh other than shellfishing. Whether this is suggestive of a longer or more permanent occupation, or simply different short-term activities cannot be determined from the available information.

The occupation is also somewhat different from many in the Beaufort area since it has produced a small quantity of lithic materials — five flakes and two projectile points. Although this collection is small, it is considerably larger than is typical from shovel testing at most low country sites.

Even more prevalent are historic remains. As previously mentioned, these materials seem consistent with the very limited historic documentation present for the site. The creamware ceramics are appropriate for the earliest map showing this to be the location of the Rupert settlement, while the lead glazed slipware and delft suggest an even earlier occupation. The pearlwares and whitewares are appropriate for the Barnwell and Stuart settlements, again shown to be in this area.

The motifs of the ceramics are also appropriate for a range of social settings on the plantation. The transfer printed and hand painted wares were likely associated with the main settlement and the owner's residence, while the annular and edged wares were more likely used by the plantation's slaves.

Also present in the assemblage are a small number of architectural remains — things like nails, window glass, and of course brick and mortar fragments. Although these remains are not common, it is exceedingly difficult to identify structural locations using shovel testing on transects at 100 foot intervals, not to mention the 200 foot intervals used in this reconnaissance. In fact, for anything approaching accurate structural locations, shovel testing must be conducted at no greater than 50 foot intervals.

Although we did not recover historic artifacts like buttons and coins, these remains are very uncommon in even main plantation assemblages — the types of artifacts recovered during this reconnaissance are those that are most frequently found at historic sites.

Although the site has certainly been plowed, the shovel tests do not suggest extensive plow damage. There are areas where the plowzone is under a foot in depth, suggesting only limited plowing. In no area does the plowed soil appear to extend deeper than a foot. The survey also failed to reveal any evidence of bulldozing, road construction, recent occupation, or other more significant disturbances. In all respects the site appears intact and relatively untouched. It seems likely that the remains present at this site will

exhibit a relatively high degree of integrity. The absence of deep plow zones or other disturbance also suggests that subsurface features (such as architectural remains) may be present and in a good state of preservation.

A small quantity of animal bone was also recovered from the site. This is somewhat unexpected since no shell middens (to neutralize the otherwise acidic soil) were encountered. It seems likely, therefore, that this bone is associated with the historic (rather than prehistoric) occupation. The presence of animal bone at the site suggests that kitchen deposits may be preserved.

Recommendations

The presence of lithics in the prehistoric assemblage and the presence of a potentially intact plantation assemblage from the northern edge of what was St. Helena Parish (an area which has received very little previous archaeological attention) suggests that this site is significant and worthy of additional investigation. Consequently, an intensive archaeological survey is recommended in the strongest possible way, if this site is to be actively considered as a school site.

Only an intensive survey will allow the site's eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places to be evaluated. The intensive survey may also help determine more precisely what components are present and which ones are most significant. In addition, this intensive survey will help further refine the site boundaries. The intensive survey will also help focus research questions appropriate for this site.

The intensive survey should minimally include shovel testing at 100 foot intervals on transects spaced 100 feet apart. In addition, if the Beaufort School District is committed to the use of this site, we recommend that the site core (as determined by the intensive testing) be further explored using testing at 50 foot intervals. This will allow the site to be better understood and structure locations to be identified. It may also be appropriate to include limited formal test units to better evaluate artifact density and diversity in different site areas.

In other words, if the Beaufort School District, after this initial reconnaissance, is still seriously considering use of this tract, it would be appropriate to combine the intensive survey with elements of a Phase II testing program to more rapidly allow site assessment and to assist in the formulation of a data recovery plan, if one is eventually needed.

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